CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Voluntourism

Definition of Voluntourism

Voluntourism, also known as "Volunteer tourism", volunteer tourism refers to tourists who pay to travel to another location where they volunteer in organized projects that involve helping communities by such means as distributing necessities and other resources, restoring and conserving environments, or assisting in field research (Broad, 2003; Wearing, 2001; Tomazos and Butler, 2010).

Various definitions of Voluntourism exist within the literature, many of which focus primarily on volunteer work conducted in tourism destinations. For example, the concept is referred to as ''regular activity to assist others in need'' (McGehee and Santos, 2005) and ''the aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society'' (Wearing, 2001). Such definitions do not capture the importance of voluntourists communicating and interacting with host community residents. As McGehee and Andereck (2009) have mentioned, research surrounding Voluntourism is relatively new (dating back roughly a decade), primarily focusing on the phenomenon as an alternative to mass tourism through descriptive studies. Consequently, cross-cultural experiences among voluntourists have rarely been examined within the field of tourism. (Lee and Woosnam, 2010).

Some scholars, Callanan and Thomas (2005), have pointed out Volunteer tourism offers meaningful experiences to travelers as they volunteer to improve some aspects of the host community during their visit. This type of tourism contributes not only to the personal growth and satisfaction of travelers but also to the development of the host community and its culture (Lo and Lee, 2010).

Volunteerism is defined as "a specific type of sustained, planned, prosocial behavior that benefits strangers and occurs within an organizational setting" (Marta et al., 2006). Combining the definition of tourism and volunteerism, Wearing (2001) defines volunteer tourists as people who invest their time, budgets, and manpower at a destination far from home togain cultural,

environmental, and spiritual experiences. From the definitions above, volunteer tourism is clearly a tourism activity incorporating volunteer services that is concerned about environmental, cultural, or humanitarian issues and intends to benefit not only tourists but also locals. It satisfies a need for tourists who want to "travel with a purpose" (Brown and Lehto, 2005) and "make a difference during their holidays" (Coghlan, 2006), enjoying a tourist experience with the benefit of contributing to others. This kind of trip usually provides authentic experiences in places fewer general tourists approach, such as protected natural areas or distant villages.

Concepts of Voluntourism

Volunteer tourism products are new to both the tourism and volunteer markets. Many stakeholders, such as government agencies, non-governmental organizations, commercial operators, and even academic institutions, have begun to offer such products and services (Ellis, 2003a). Although the content of their projects may be similar as far as the volunteer and tourism elements, their goals and missions vary widely. For example, some expeditions emphasize the tourism aspect, while others include more volunteer services. Trips may target young people, mature adults, families, unskilled laborers, students, or professionals. The duration of a trip may be less than a week, multiple weeks, months, or even years. Some expeditions require the volunteer tourists to perform extensive labor, such as building houses, and some only take one or two days, perhaps working with orphans. The concept of volunteer tourism includes a great diversity of projects and involvement of volunteer tourists.

Uriely et al. (2003) suggested that volunteer tourism emphasizes the growing appeal of concepts such as "alternative", "real", "ecological", and "responsible" forms of tourism. They are seen as other dimensions of postmodern tourism. Many individuals may not perceive themselves to be volunteer tourists (Lyons, 2003); rather, they may believe that they are participating in adventure tourism (Swarbrooke et al., 2003), ecotourism (Campbell and Smith, 2006; Halpenny and Caissie, 2003; Weiler and Richens, 1995), or even environmental research tourism (Ellis, 2003b).

Callanan and Thomas (2005) suggested classifying volunteer tourism into three groups: "shallow", "intermediate", and "deep" as Sylvan (1985)'s idea of ecology which cited in

Acott and Trobe's study (1998) Analogue to the concept of "shallow ecology" which means being more concerned about the welfare of humans alone than nature as a whole, "the shallow volunteer tourism" means being more concerned about self-development and career/ academic achievement than about the welfare of local community or project itself (Callanan and Thomas, 2005). The level of involvement, contribution, trip duration, skill requirements, and the importance of self-interest motives could be the factors to categorize "shallow, intermediate, and deep" volunteer tourism (Callanan and Thomas, 2005).

Volunteer Tourism

Definition of Volunteer Tourist

Volunteer Tourist, also known as "Voluntourist." Callanan and Thomas (2005) classified volunteer tourists as "shallow," "intermediate," or "deep" based on the duration of the volunteer trip, the skills or qualifications required of participants, the degree of involvement (passive or active) of volunteer tourists, their level of contribution to local communities, and the focus of the experience (altruistic or self-interested). Brown and Morrison (2003) found two types of volunteer tourists: volunteer-minded tourists who are willing to spend most or all of their vacation volunteering, and vacation-minded volunteer tourists who devote only some of their vacation time to volunteer work.

Concepts of Volunteer Tourism

Lo and Lee (2010) discuss the question: who are the volunteer tourists? They mentioned that people of different age groups have varied travel styles and attitude towards the type of travel experiences they prefer. Pearce and Coghlan (2009) highlighted that the classification of baby boomers (those born between 1945 and 1964), generation X (those born from 1965 to 1979) and generation Y (those born in 1980 or after) have been used in studies on tourists. The Gen Y cohort is presently the main target market for volunteer tourism. They include students who take volunteer tours during their spring break or summer vacation (Brown and

Lehto, 2005; Callanan and Thomas, 2005; Rogers, 2007). Some students choose to take a gap year from education and participate in overseas volunteer projects (Simpson, 2004; Söderman and Snead, 2009). Gen Yers are Internet savvy, better educated, and more affluent as they are supported by their parents for a longer period of time (Strass and Howe, 2003). They are more aware of global problems and sustainability issues (Pearce and Coghlan, 2009). Yesawich (2008) believed that the Y generation prefers products that allow them to express individuality while still remaining part of the group. While some "extra" things may be seen as attentive and responsive by previous generations, there is a possibility that Gen Y finds it tedious and unnecessary (Atkinson, 2008). This contrasts the older generations who sometimes seek products and services to distinguish one's self from the norm. Worklife balance is not just a buzz word for them, they want flexibility and jobs that accommodate to their family and personal lives which may possibly translate to increased leisure time as opposed to the "money rich, time poor" generations before them (Raines, 2002). In recent years, volunteer tourism is attracting an increasing number of mature travelers with different interests and abilities (Travel with a challenge, 2008: online). These older travelers, mainly from the baby boomer generation, participate in volunteer tourism because they have a strong interest in a particular cause, project, or subject area that may be related to their hobby or an earlier career. Some want to visit a region in a "grassroots" way, which is not feasible in traditional leisure travel and others want to give back to society.

Voluntourists experience cultural exchange through engaging in work to help residents (McIntosh and Zahra, 2007), all the while experiencing and learning about others' lives and cultures. In this regard, Voluntourism is considered an alternative form of tourism (McGehee and Andereck, 2009; Uriely et al., 2003), whereby direct personal and cultural communication and mutual understanding between tourists and residents is sought (Wearing, 2001). In some instances, once voluntourists return back to their homes, they are likely to have a better understanding of the life and culture of the residents they helped, which can potentially change their worldviews (Zahra and McIntosh, 2007). As McGehee and Santos (2005); McGehee (2002) suggest, after voluntourists experience cross-cultural volunteer tourism, they may have "global citizenship" and become more involved in a changing world. In this vein, such individuals are considered to have a better comprehension of global matters such as environmental degradation and poverty from directly interacting with less affluent people. Nevertheless, these voluntourists'

transformations and the process by which they occur have received relatively little attention from researchers in the field. Therefore the purpose of this paper is to offer the theory of integrative cross-cultural adaptation as a viable framework to explain the phenomenon of voluntourist transformation and provide potential research opportunities to explore. (Lee and Woosnam, 2010).

Activity Involvement

Concepts of Activity Involvement

The concept of involvement was first introduced in psychology (Sherif and Cantril, 1947), then in consumer behavior (Krugman, 1965). And the definitions of activity involvement adapted from the consumer behavior literature have focused on the notion of "personal relevance;" where elements of an activity are related to an individual's identity, values, or needs (Celsi and Olson, 1988; McIntyre, 1989). The definition of involvement proposed by Rothschild (1984) has received wide acceptance: Involvement is an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest. It is evoked by a particular stimulus or situation, and has drive properties. Its consequences are types of searching, information-processing and decision-making.

Leisure researchers' conceptualization of leisure involvement was influenced by the early work of Muzafer Sherif and colleagues' investigations of ego-attitudes and ego-involvement. He conceptualized the ego as a constellation of values, goals, standards, or norms that are shaped by the social world(s) within which the individual exists. Ego-attitudes are a manifestation of this value set and vary in priority and importance (Sherif and Cantril, 1947; Sherif, 1980). They are activated when a cognitive connection is made between stimuli (i.e., the attitude object) and elements of the ego or self system. Sherif and colleagues demonstrated that individual response to specific stimuli is determined by the strength of the cognitive connection between the self and the attitude objects (Sherif and Hovland, 1961; Sherif et al., 1965; Sherif and Sherif, 1967). Social judgment theory was later developed to account for these motivational properties (Sherif and Hovland, 1961). The theory assumes that exposure to discrepant attitude positions creates little tension or incongruity for the uninvolved person, but a great deal of

discomfort for the ego-involved person (Sherif and Sherif, 1967). Thus, ego-involvement strengthens the anchoring effects of prior attitudes. The more involved the individual is, the more likely it is that his or her attitude will serve as an internal reference point in judging attitudinal stimuli.

Involvement research has primarily focused upon identifying possible differences between high and low involvement purchases. Generally, researchers (Rothschild, 1979; Zalchkowsky, 1985) have concluded that when purchase of a product, or a leisure service, is considered to be important to a participant's ego, self esteem, or needs, or when there is a high level of financial, social or psychological risk, then a high involvement state is likely to exist. This leads to evaluative processing of relevant information about the product or leisure service, and to a relatively complex decision-making process. A participant with a high involvement level is likely to seek out and use information about the choice alternatives and follow a comprehensive process of decision-making (Assael, 1981; Kassarjian, 1981). On the other hand, when the service is not important or relevant to participants' self-esteem, values, or needs, and perceived to have minimal risk associated with it, then they tend to gather little or no evaluative information about choice alternatives and follow relatively simple, non-comprehensive decision-making processes (Rothschild, 1979; Zaichkowsky, 1985). A low involvement response is likely to be characterized by (a) a relative lack of active information seeking about the available product or leisure services, (b) little comparative evaluation between available choice alternatives, (c) a perception that all the choices are similar, and (d) the individual having no special preference for a particular product or leisure service (Zaichkowsky, 1985). As a result of the low level of involvement, an individual tends to participate in alternatives that are satisfactory or "good enough" rather than the optimum decisions sought when high involvement is present (Lastovicka, 1979; Wright, 1974).

One of the most important propositions that have subsequently received considerable support in tbe literature suggests that multifaceted scales that portray involvement as a profile of scores rather than a single score are most appropriate for measuring the construct. This approach acknowledges that leisure activities have the potential to arouse multiple ego-attitudes or be personally relevant for several different reasons, all of which are enduring in nature. Three dimensions (a) Attraction: the importance and pleasure associated with the activity, (b) Centrality: the value of an activity relative to other domains of life (e.g., occupation), and (c)

Self Expression: the expression of one's identity through activity engagement; have consistently been shown to be applicable and reliably measured within leisure settings (Dimanche et al., 1991; Havitz and Dimanche, 1997; Mclntyre and Pigram, 1992; Wiley et al., 2000). Based on their research on vehicle-based camping, Mclntyre and Pigram suggested that attraction is best conceptualized in terms of recreationists' perceptions of activity importance and the pleasure derived through the activity. The centrality dimension, on the other hand, refers to the centrality of the activity within the context of recreationists' overall life (Watkins, 1987). An activity may be considered central if other aspects of an individual's life are organized around the activity.

Finally, self-expression refers to the self-re presentation or the impression of the self that individuals wish to convey to others through their involvement in the activity. Empirical indicators of the three dimensions can be seen to make up an involvement profile related to an individual's participation in a particular leisure activity, or type of activity, and thus indicate the overall relevance or meaning of that activity in the context of the individual's life (Wiley et al., 2000).

Place Attachment

Concepts of Place Attachment

Altman and Low (1992) have noted that place attachment is subsumed by a variety of analogous concepts drawn from several fields of knowledge. These include topophilia (Tuan, 1974), place identity (Proshansky et al., 1983), place dependence (Stokols and Shumaker, 1981), sense of place or rootedness (Chawla, 1992), and community attachment (Hummon, 1992). In their synthesis of the literature, Altman and Low identified several common elements of place attachment research that hold relevance for the current investigation; (a) the construct is strongly affective or emotion based; (b) the notion of "place" implies a geographic setting that is the (c) primary attitude object that can vary in scale (e.g., home, street, community), and Places often can possess a strong social element given that they are often repositories or contexts within which social relations occur. In the leisure literature, most conceptualizations of the construct have revolved around two components; place identity and place dependence (Moore and Graefe,

1994; Williams and Roggenbuck, 1989).

Consistent with earlier work on the construct, place dependence was conceptualized as the instrumental or functional values ascribed to settings for their ability to facilitate desired leisure experiences. Alternately, place identity refers to the symbolic and emotional attachments recreationists form with "special places" (Schreyer et al., 1981). The social characteristic of place attachment discussed by Altman and Low has received little attention in the leisure literature in spite of being well established in the environmental psychology literature (Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001; Mesch and Manor, 1998). This is somewhat surprising given that much of the leisure experience is social in nature (Burch, 1969; Kyle and Chick, 2002; Scott and Godbey, 1992). If meaningful social relationships occur and are maintained in leisure settings, then it should also be likely that these settings share some of this meaning given that they provide the context for these relationships and shared experiences. With this in mind, we have also included a social dimension in our conceptualization of place attachment called "social bonding". These three dimensions of place attachment also represent distinct sources of personal relevance.

Interest in understanding the meaning that places have for people can be found in several disciplines. Vaske and Kobrin (2001), in their brief review of the place attachment literature, noted several related interpretations. For example, sociology emphasizes how the symbolic meanings of settings influence the social context of human interactions (Greider and Garkovich, 1994), often providing a context for group or shared identity (Hummon, 1992). Anthropology seeks to understand the cultural significance of symbols, such as geographic settings, on day-to-day life (Geertz, 1973). Human geography's conception of "sense of place" (Buttimer and Seamon, 1980; Relph, 1976; Tuan, 1980) is consistent with environmental psychology's notion of place attachment (Altman and Low, 1992; Proshanky et al., 1983). In this sense, attachment represents an emotional or affective bond between a person and a particular place (Guiliani and Feldman, 1993; Williams and Patterson, 1999). This latter perspective has received the greatest attention in the leisure literature. Building from the work of geographers and environmental psychologists, leisure researchers tend to describe the meaning places have for people in terms of two components; place dependence and place identity (Schreyer et al., 1981).

Williams et al. (1992) suggested that place dependence, a functional attachment, reflects the importance of a resource in providing amenities necessary for desired activities (Stokols and Shumaker, 1981; Williams and Roggenbuck, 1989). Building from the work of Schreyer and associates (Jacob and Schreyer, 1980; Schreyer et al., 1981; Schreyer and Roggenbuck, 1981), Williams et al. "described the functional meaning of a place as the tendency to see the environment as a collection of attributes that permit the pursuit of a focal activity". In this context, the value of a setting to the individual is based on specificity, functionality, and satisfaction of a place and its "goodness" for hiking, fishing, camping, scenic enjoyment and so forth.

Williams et al. (1992) have noted that the second view of place attachment has developed around Proshansky's (1978) concept of place identity. Place identity refers to "those dimensions of the self that define the individual's personal identity in relation to the physical environment by means of a complex pattern of conscious and unconscious ideas, beliefs, preferences, feelings, values, goals and behavioral tendencies and skills relevant to this environment" (Proshanky, 1978). Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) have referred to this as a cognitive structure that refers to global self-identification similar to conceptualizations of gender identity and role identity.

Thus, in addition to being a resource for satisfying explicitly felt behavioral or experiential goals, a place may be viewed as an essential part of one's self, resulting in strong emotional attachment to places. In an attempt to empirically define the place attachment construct, Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) developed a series of Likert-scaled statements designed to measure these two theoretical dimensions of place attachment and pilot tested them on 129 students from four universities. While their analysis produced three distinct components, subsequent testing later confirmed the existence of the place dependence and place identity structure.

Experiential Marketing

Concepts of Experiential Marketing

Experiential marketing is critical for businesses, especially in the hospitality and tourism industry. Williams (2006) argued that products of this industry are always experiential. In addition to products/services, people get experiences from staying at a hotel, dining in a restaurant, or visiting a travel destination. Instead of buying new products that they do not have, people desire experiences that they have never had. Driver and Toucher (1970) separated experience into five different phases: planning, leaving for the destination, experiencing the destination, returning, and remembering. Customers' experiences in these phases are subject to change, especially in the third phase because customers' experiences are complex and affected by many factors (Ittelson, 1978), including controllable and noncontrollable factors by businesses. Therefore, creating unforgettable experiences is critical to the success of businesses in the hospitality industry.

Experiential marketing, which is defined here as a live event or experience that gives the target audience the opportunity to see a product and experience it for themselves. Experiential marketing is further separated into five concepts: Sense, Feel, Think, Act, and Relate marketing (Schmitt, 1999).

Traditional marketing provided useable strategies, tools, and concepts that helped businesses succeed in an earlier age. Responding to today's much more complicated society and consumers, a features-and-benefits approach of traditional marketing may not, however, be the most appropriate. Williams (2006) argued that experiential marketing is one of the approaches providing a solution to respond to society and customers. Experiential marketing differs from traditional marketing in four major ways-marketing focus, product categories and competition, customer characteristics, and research method (Schmitt, 1999).

Schmitt (1999) defined experiential marketing as customers' developing recognition of and purchasing goods or services from a company or brand after they experience activities and perceive stimulations. These experiences enhance the value of a product, a brand, or a company. Nevertheless, experiential marketing does not overlook the quality and functions of

products and services; rather, it enhances customers' emotions and sense stimulation. The main point of experiential marketing is extracting the essence of products and then applying it to intangible, physical, and interactive experiences that increase the value of products or services and helps customers make their purchasing decisions (Williams, 2006).

Experiential marketing will become a main concept and tool in the marketing field in the future as the world adopts a more experiential economy (McNickel, 2004); as a strategy, it may be the future direction of marketing (Craig, 2002). Experiential marketing can also be applied to different businesses in different industries, from Ford Motor Company to the North Hawaii Community Hospital (Hill, 2001). Experiential marketing motivates customers to make faster and more positive purchasing decisions (Williams, 2006).

Yuan and Wu (2008) pointed out that in the hospitality and tourism industry, from providers' points of view, they use products and services to create a stage for customers (experiential marketing); from customers' points of view, they have their own expectations and perceptions. The process of experiencing connects experiential marketing and customers' perceptions. Simply put, the process can be formed as a procedure of staging, experiencing, and perceiving. During or after experiencing, customers' perception can be considered the outcome of experiential marketing. Therefore, the performance of experiential marketing was examined by measuring customers' perception in the relate study.

Experiential Value

Definition of Experiential Value

In what has been dubbed an emerging "Experience Economy," experiential value has been defined as "perceptions are based upon interactions involving either direct usage or distanced appreciation of goods and services". These interactions provide the basis for the relativistic preferences held by the individuals involved (Holbrook and Corfman, 1985). Experiential value included both extrinsic and intrinsic benefit (Babin and Darden, 1995; Mano and Oliver, 1993). Although most empirical examinations of experiential value impact on satisfaction, and verified with regard to experiences with Internet shopping (Mathwick et al., 2001).

Experiential value perceptions are based upon interactions involving either direct usage or distanced appreciation of goods and services. These interactions provide the basis for the relativistic preferences held by the individuals involved (Holbrook and Corfman, 1985). Experiential value has been said to offer both extrinsic and intrinsic benefit (Babin and Darden, 1995; Batra and Ahtola, 1991; Crowley et al., 1992; Mano and Oliver, 1993).

Concepts of Experiential Value

Holbrook (1994) broadens the traditional extrinsic–intrinsic conceptualization of experiential value by including an activity dimension. Reactive or passive value derives from the consumer's comprehension of, appreciation for, or response to a consumption object or experience. Active or participative value, on the other hand, implies a heightened collaboration between the consumer and the marketing entity. Deighton and Grayson (1995) cite consumer collaboration as a necessary prerequisite to creating a playful, game like exchange experience. In their view, the marketer "lures the buyer across a threshold" from distanced appreciation to active collaboration, and in the process, opens the door to a broad range of value sources. Collaboration can come in the form of cognitive, behavioral or financial investment on the part of the consumer. The activity dimension is used in this study as a means of bringing economic and experiential sources of value under one conceptual umbrella.

The typology of experiential value proposed by Holbrook (1994) suggests a value landscape divided into four quadrants framed by intrinsic/extrinsic sources of value on one axis and active/reactive value on the other. Drawing upon prior research, we label these four dimensions of experiential value: consumer return on investment, service excellence, playfulness, and aesthetic appeal (Figure 1).
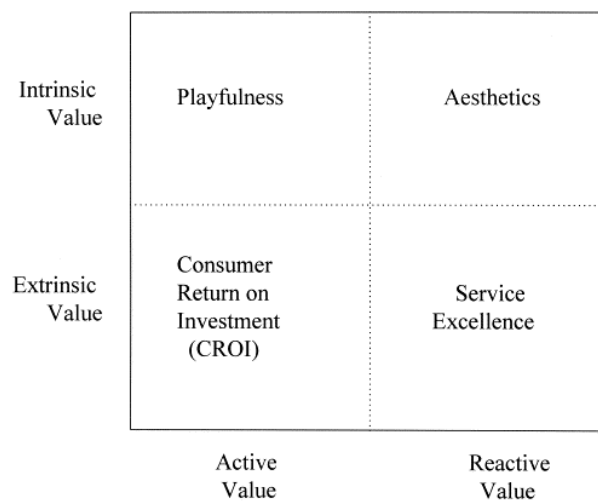
	Active Value	Reactive Value
Intrinsic Value	Playfulness	Aesthetics
Extrinsic Value	Consumer Return on Investment (CROI)	Service Excellence

Figure 1 Typology of Experiential Value

Source: Holbrook (1994)

Consumer Return on Investment

Consumer return on investment (CROI) comprises the active investment of financial, temporal, behavioral and psychological resources that potentially yield a return. The consumer may experience this return in terms of economic "utility the perception of affordable quality" (Thaler, 1985; Grewal et al., 1996; Yadov and Monroe, 1993) as well as utility derived from the efficiency of an exchange encounter (Holbrook, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988).

Service Excellence

Service excellence reflects an inherently reactive response in which the consumer comes to admire a marketing entity for its capacity to serve as a means to a self-oriented end (Holbrook and Corfman, 1985; Holbrook, 1994). Oliver (1999) characterizes this dimension of value as operating as an ideal, a standard against which quality judgments are ultimately formed. He characterizes the relationship between perceived service excellence and service quality as moderated by performance outcomes. The scholar Zeithaml (1988) also mentioned that the value derived from perceived service excellence reflects the generalized consumer appreciation of a service provider to deliver on its promises through demonstrated expertise and task-related performance

Aesthetics

An aesthetic response is a reaction to the symmetry, proportion and unity of a physical object, a work of poetry or a performance (Olson, 1981; Veryzer, 1993). In the retail context, aesthetics is reflected in two key dimensions the salient visual elements of the retail environment and the entertaining or dramatic aspects of the service performance itself (Bellenger et al., 1976; Deighton and Grayson, 1995; Mano and Oliver, 1993).

Visual appeal is driven by the design, physical attractiveness and beauty inherent in the retail setting (Holbrook, 1994). In the case of catalog merchandising, magazine-like formats that rely heavily on photography create a retail setting designed to showcase merchandise and imply a desirable consumption experience (Schmid, 1998). On-line, the use of color, graphic layout and photographic quality combine to influence this dimension. Consumers who perceive a shopping experience to be more than a purchase opportunity view that experience as one to be savored and appreciated for all its nuances. This shopper is responding to the entertainment dimension of the aesthetic response. Entertainment value reflects an appreciation for the retail "spectacle." For those who shop for the sake of entertainment, this type of experience operates as a "pick-me-up," which in some instances, is consciously used to lift the spirit (Babin et al., 1994).

Both visual appeal and the entertainment dimension of the aesthetic response offer immediate pleasure for its own sake, irrespective of a retail environment's ability to facilitate the accomplishment of a specific shopping task. (Deighton and Grayson, 1995; Driefus, 1997; Chain Store Age, 1996).

Playfulness

Playful exchange behavior is reflected in the intrinsic enjoyment that comes from engaging in activities that are absorbing, to the point of offering an escape from the demands of the day-to-day world (Huizinga, 1955; Unger and Kernan, 1983). Playfulness exists to some degree in any activity that is freely engaged in. Playful acts have a restorative capability and operate outside of immediate material interests (Day, 1981). The intrinsic enjoyment of playful exchange behavior serves as an end unto itself, engaged in without concern for practical considerations (Babin et al., 1994). Escapism is the aspect of playfulness that allows the customer to temporarily "get away from it all," often involving an element of "pretend" (Huizinga, 1955). Window shopping or other forms of

vicarious consumption are examples of the pretend aspect of escapism in the retail shopping context.

The defining distinction between playfulness and aesthetic appeal is the active role the customer adopts as exchange is elevated to play. When the customer crosses the line from spectator to participant that cause their role shifts from one of distanced appreciation of aesthetic elements to co-producers of value. (Deighton and Grayson, 1995; Gummesson, 1998). With this shift, the exchange experience is transformed into active play.

Woodruff (1997) comments on the structural properties of the customer value construct, suggesting a hierarchical structure based upon attribute qualities and performances, which lead to higher order consumption consequences. Customer goals operate at the top of this hierarchy of value, providing the contextual frame for attaching importance to various consumption experiences (Clemens and Woodruff, 1992). Woodruff's description of this hierarchical structure articulates a means-end conceptualization of value. Zeithaml (1988) adopted a similar perspective in her use of laddering procedures to uncover the links between product attributes, quality and value in exploratory work on this topic.

Revisit Intention

Concepts of Revisit Intention

Revisit intention, also known as "Intention to return to the same destination" or "The willingness of repeat visiting." Repeat visiting is an important phenomenon in tourism, at the level of both the economy as a whole and the individual attraction. Visitor surveys at individual attractions frequently identify the significance of repeat visiting, and the same survey also showed important variations in repeat visiting by visitor characteristics.

In the scholar Metin Kozak's research (2001), that mentioned that the role of variables such as psychological, economic, demographic, media and communication, and previous experiences in forming the opportunity sets and choosing a particular destination has drawn significant attention from researchers (Ankomahet al., 1996; Court and Lupton 1997; Gitelson and Crompton 1984; Goodall 1988; Mayo and Jarvis 1981; Um and Crompton 1990; Woodside and Lysonski 1989). Once a destination is visited, tourists have first-hand experiences which they can use in making

decisions by comparisons with other personal experiences, with information sought from either media or friends. The literature describes individuals as relating their expectations from a trip to performance allowing them to evaluate their holidays within the context of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. An implication is that if people are satisfied with a destination they may be more likely to come back and to tell others about their favorable and even unfavorable experiences related to the destination.

Metin Kozak (2001) also addressed that conventional wisdom suggests that satisfaction leads to repeat purchase and positive word-of-mouth recommendation in the post consumption phase. Marketing literature has paid much attention to the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty (Anderson and Sullivan 1993; Hallowell 1996; LaBarbera and Mazursky 1983; Newman and Werbel 1973; Oliver 1980; Rust and Zahorik 1993). According to this approach, the intention and willingness of customers to repeat purchase depends upon the level of their satisfaction with the product or service. It is believed that if they are satisfied, they will be more likely to continue to purchase. Similarly, if they are dissatisfied, they will be more likely to change to an alternative (Oliver and Swan 1989). For instance, there is empirical support that when tourists have a more enjoyable experience than expected are more likely to have plans to return in the future than others (Ross 1993). Similarly, in a reference to the findings of research conducted in the Balearic Islands, it is demonstrated that tourists' positive opinions about their holidays are likely to increase the probability of their return (Juaneda 1996).

The potential importance of repeat visiting is further underlined by the finding in econometric studies of both international tourism flows, and the demand for individual attractions, that lagged dependent variables have an important explanatory role to play. One possible explanation for this is that a visit in the current period affects the likelihood of a repeat visit by the same visitor in some subsequent period. A visitor in the current period may also have an effect on the likelihood that other people will subsequently visit, as his/her opinions on their own visit, shape the perceptions of others about the worthwhileness of making a repeat visit, or indeed a visit for the first time. These "trickle down" effects have not been explored in the literature. (Darnell and Johnson, 2001)

The scholar Chang, Su-Ching (2006) used 3 items to measure the tourist's revisit intention, the first of all is "willing to visit again", the second is "willing to recommend", and the third is "willing to place the visiting destination in priority."

Theoretical Framework

According to the literature review, addressing the content of the theoretical framework (See Figure 2) to develop the volunteer tourists' revisit intention model include the 5 constructs, activity involvement, experiential marketing, experiential value, place attachment, and revisit intention.
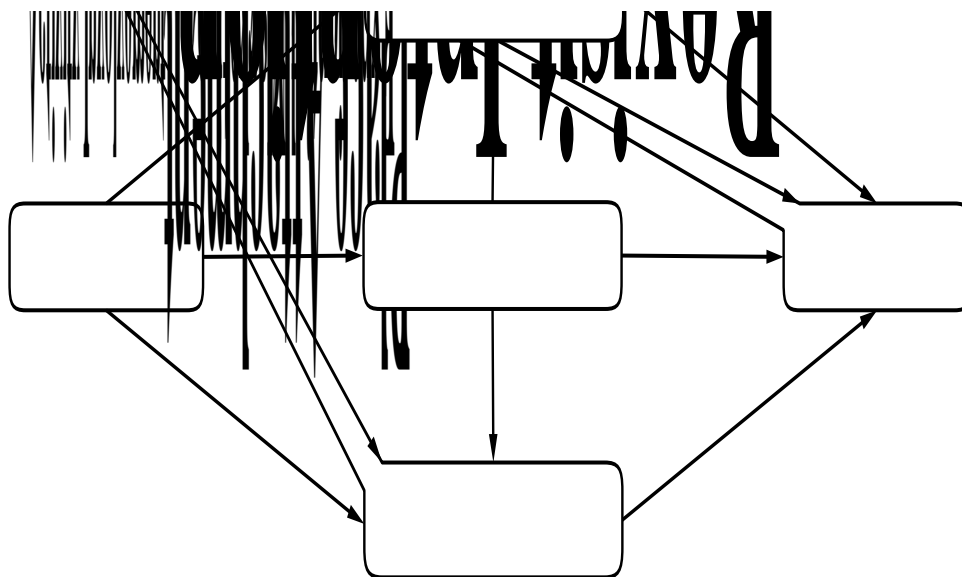

Figure 2 The Theoretical Framework

In the light of the theoretical framework, can study and discussion the antecedents (activity involvement) and factors (experiential marketing, experiential value and place attachment) will influence the revisit intention.

Conceptual Framework

According to the concept of theoretical framework, and the literature review, then, in this study will follow some specialists and scholar researches' verifications, and structure the conceptual framework (See Figure 3).
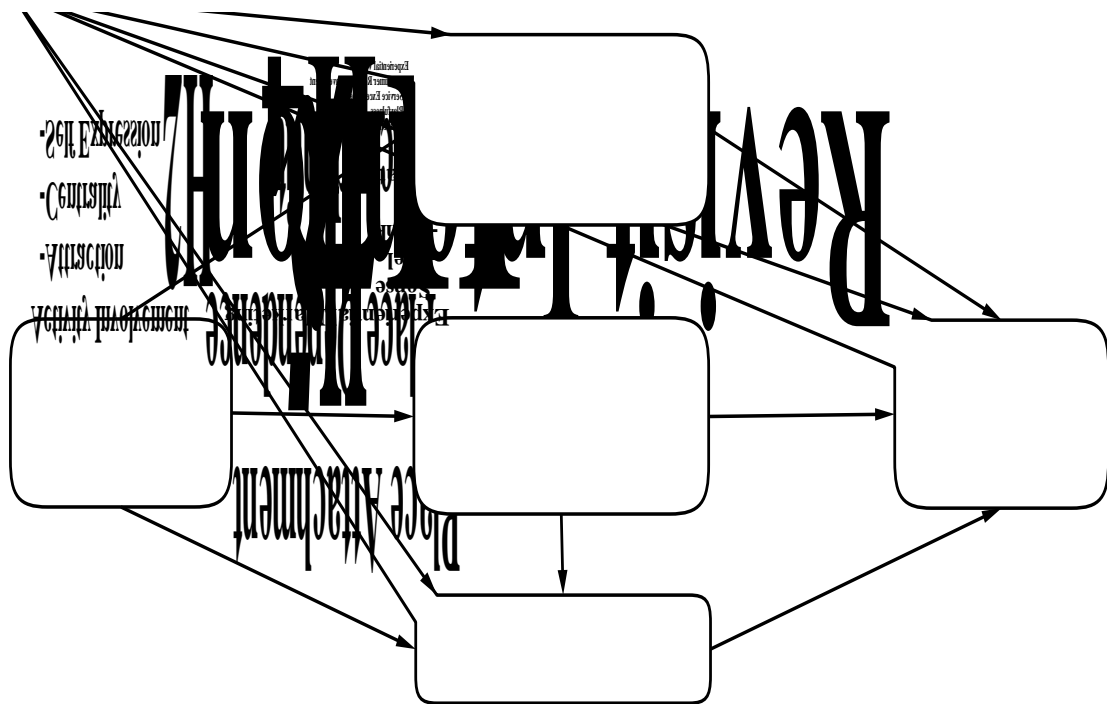
Figure 3 The Conceptual Framework

In the concept of activity involvement adopts the Mclntyre and Pigram's (1992) research model, there are divided in three dimensions, attraction, centrality, and self-expression, to express and verify the concept of activity involvement. Furthermore, in the concept of experiential marketing adopts the theory from Schmitt's (1999) research, there are divided in five dimensions: sense, feel, think, act, and relate .to measure the concept of experiential marketing. Then, the concept of the experiential value consolidates the researches' from Mathwick et al. (2001); Batra and Ahtola (1991); Holbrook and Hirschman (1982); Babin et al. (1994) researches, and use 4 dimensions, consumer return on investment, service excellence, playfulness, and aesthetic, to measure the concept of the experiential value. Moreover, the concept of place attachment adopts the research from Williams and Roggenbuck's (1989), and the conceptualization consisted of measures capturing two dimensions, place dependence and place identity. Finally, the concept of revisit intention adopts the research verification from Chang (2006), used 3 items to measure the tourist's revisit intention, willing to visit again, willing to recommend, and willing to place the visiting destination in priority.

Research Hypothesis

According to the conceptual framework, this research brings up 8 hypotheses. The inference process and the hypotheses will elaborate in the follow contents.

Inference 1:

In the research about the study of customer experiential value of traveling abroad (Lin, 2009), the research findings pointed out that the people can involve in their leisure activity or not when they traveled abroad, that will affect the experiential value in whole journey. And many researches also addressed that more activity involvement will bring more satisfactions in the tourism industry. It means that if tourists have highly activity involvement, they will create more positive experiential value in their trip. Base on the above inference, in this study will bring up the hypothesis between Activity Involvement and Experiential Value as follows:

H1: Activity Involvement has the positive effect on Experiential Value.

Inference 2:

Havitz and Dimanche (1990) considered that activity involvement is one of the important components in leisure experience, and more involvement will get better experience in the leisure and recreational activity. Furthermore, some activities in culture and tourism industry, the tourists should spend more time and concentration, can experience the essence of the culture. Fang (2002) studied on the relationships between activity involvement and recreation experience, he cited the experience marketing theory from Schmitt (1999) and adopted the 5 dimensions to measure the degree of tourists' experience, he found that activity involvement has the positive effect on experience, and if the tourists can involve more, they will easy to perceive the value and importance on the activity. In other word, if the tourists involve more, they will pay more concentrate on the activity, and get more realization through the activity. Base on the above inference, in this study will bring up the hypothesis between Activity Involvement and Experiential Marketing as follows:

H2: Activity Involvement has the positive effect on Experiential Marketing.

Inference 3:

Many scholars mention that the activities participants' involvement and participation is one of the important factors to predict the place attachment (Schreyer and Lime, 1984; McFarlane et al., 1998; Kyle et al., 2003; 2004). Many studies are discovered that activity involvement is one of the antecedent variables of place attachment. Moreover, there is also indirect evidence suggesting that activity involvement is an antecedent of place attachment. For example, Moore and Graefe (1994) observed that activity importance was a significant predictor of both place dependence and place identity. Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) in their research, they found the level of activity involvement will affect the level of place attachment. Finally Vorkinn and Riese (2001) reported that activity related variables such as use intensity, use experience, and engagement in recreational activities were significant predictors of strength of place attachment. Combined, we hypothesized the following relationship between activity involvement and place attachment:

H3: Activity Involvement has the positive effect on Place Attachment.

Inference 4:

Cheba and Michon (2003) reported, during the process of experience, the environment factors will affect consumers' awareness, that will also have influence on consumers' mood and feelings. Yuan (2003) in the research found that the sense dimension in experiential marketing has the positive effect on experiential value. Hung (2003) discussed about the influence of experiential marketing and relationship marketing on customer value and customer satisfaction, he addressed that experiential marketing has the positive effect on experiential value and customer satisfaction. According to the above references, we hypothesized the following relationship between experiential marketing and experiential value:

H4: Experiential Marketing has the positive effect on Experiential Value.

Inference 5:

Because of the place is closely with the people that make the experience in the environment become more meaningful and valuable (Peng, 2005). Tseng (2003) reported that people visit in one place will develop some emotional link, and then create the personal feelings for the place of the long-term. The reason why the place is meaningful, that because of the people experiences there and comes into existence some value and impressions. Based on the above arguments, we hypothesized the following relationship between experiential marketing and place attachment:

H5: Experiential Marketing has the positive effect on Place Attachment.

Inference 6:

Goodall (1988) pointed out that the tourists had good experiences in their trip that will switch to a kind of preference intention, and then look forward to the next travel experience. Holbrook (1994) considered that the consumers' values are determined by consumers' preferences and interests, and the values are included the experience between the interaction of products, services and personnel, and the values also will affect the repurchase intention. Yang (2004) through the study about the relationships among environment experience, experiential value, customer satisfaction and behavioral intention, she found the good experience of the environment had the positive effect on experiential value, and increase the satisfaction then bring out the positive intentions. Base on the above inference, in this study will bring up the hypothesis between the experiential value and revisit intention as follows:

H6: Experiential Value has the positive effect on Revisit Intention.

Inference 7:

Shmitt (1999) in the research about experiential marketing was considered that the customers through observation or participation in events by individual, they will feel some stimulating, and bring out the purchase motivations then result the purchase behavior. Zeithaml et al. (1996) also reported that after accepting the service, customers will according to the

experience bring out the awareness of service quality, and then trigger the behavioral intentions. Dawson et al. (1990) pointed out that the emotion at the purchasing moment will affect the customers' satisfactions and repurchase intentions. The related research in the tourism industry, "the strategies of experiential marketing applied in the National Science and Technology Museum", mentioned that the experiential marketing will help to provide the different experience from previous, through experiential marketing media will help to improve the number of the visitors. (Lu, 2003). According to the above references, we hypothesized the following relationship between experiential marketing and revisit intention:

H7: Experiential Marketing has the positive effect on Revisit Intention.

Inference 8:

Many researchers have verified the relationship between place attachment and revisit intention. Chen et al. (2007) discussed about the activity involvement, place attachment and willingness to revisit of leisure farm visitors, they reported that the visitors' place attachment has the positive effect on the willingness of revisiting. Hung (2007) mentioned that place attachment affected the recreational satisfaction directly and affected after-travel behavior indirectly. Tsai et al. (2008) in the research about visitors' awareness of recreation information and their satisfaction, place attachment and revisit intentions in national park, they addressed that place attachment is positively related to revisit intentions. According to the above references, we hypothesized the following relationship between place attachment and revisit intention:

H8: Place Attachment has the positive effect on Revisit Intention.